# Application of homotopy perturbation method to the radial thrust problem 

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#### Abstract

The dynamics of a spacecraft propelled by a continuous radial thrust resembles that of a nonlinear oscillator. This is analyzed in this work with a novel method that combines the definition of a suitable homotopy with a classical perturbation approach, in which the low thrust is assumed to be a perturbation of the nominal Keplerian motion. The homotopy perturbation method provides the analytical (approximate) solution of the dynamical equations in polar form to estimate the corresponding spacecraft propelled trajectory with a short computational time. The accuracy of the analytical results was tested in an orbital-targeting mission scenario.


KEYWORDS<br>radial thrust<br>homotopy perturbation method nonlinear oscillator<br>trajectory approximation<br>Engineering Note<br>Received: 24 May 2022<br>Accepted: 4 August 2022<br>(C) The Author(s) 2022

## 1 Introduction

The study of spacecraft motion under radial propulsive acceleration is a classical problem in spaceflight mechanics, and represents one of the few cases in which some properties of the propelled trajectory can be obtained in an analytical form [1, 2]. Several techniques are available to analyze this problem. For example, Prussing and Coverstone-Carroll [3] proposed a graphical approach to identify the allowable regions of motion when the acceleration magnitude has a constant value. Their results were later extended to the case of variable spacecraft mass [4], and completed by including the $J_{2}$ effect in a planetocentric mission scenario [5]. Other approaches use elliptic integrals [6, 7] to describe the spacecraft propelled trajectory. Izzo and Biscani [8] discussed an analytical solution of the spacecraft equations of motion using Weierstrass integrals. More recently, the classical radial thrust problem was analyzed for spacecraft equipped with propellant-less propulsion systems [9], such as solar sails [10-13], electric sails [14, 15], and magnetic sails [16].

In the context of a radial low-thrust mission scenario, that is, when the propulsive acceleration may be considered as a small disturbance of the Keplerian motion, perturbation methods represent a convenient analysis tool [17, 18]. In fact, perturbations based on asymptotic
series expansions have recently been used to obtain accurate approximations of spacecraft dynamics in a number of special cases, which differ in terms of the type of propulsion system used by the spacecraft [19, 20] or the thrust vector direction [21, 22].

A well-known technique originally proposed by $\mathrm{He}[23$, 24] combines the typical perturbative approach with a suitably defined homotopy [25, 26]. Although this homotopy perturbation method has been applied to a wide range of science engineering problems [27-31], it has never been applied to approximate the trajectory of a radially accelerated spacecraft. Accordingly, the aim of this work is to present the first application of He's homotopy perturbation method to spacecraft propelled trajectory analysis within the context of the (continuous) radial low-thrust problem. In particular, we discuss the effectiveness of this technique in obtaining an analytical approximation of the spacecraft propelled trajectory when the propulsive acceleration is in the radial direction and has a small and constant magnitude.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. After a brief description of the mathematical equations that model the system dynamics, we discuss the application of the homotopy perturbation method and derive an analytical approximation of the spacecraft propelled trajectory. Then, a comparison is made with

## Nomenclature

$\left\{a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}, a_{4}\right\}$
$a_{R}$
E
$\mathcal{H}$ homotopy
$k \quad$ embedding parameter
$\mathcal{L} \quad$ linear operator
$\mathcal{N} \quad$ nonlinear operator
$r \quad$ radial coordinate $(\mathrm{km})$
$t \quad$ time (s)
$\epsilon \quad$ dimensionless propulsive acceleration
$\theta \quad$ polar angle (deg)
$\mu \quad$ gravitational parameter $\left(\mathrm{km}^{3} / \mathrm{s}^{2}\right)$

| $\rho$ | dimensionless radial coordinate |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\rho_{i}$ | $i$-th coefficient of power series <br> $\bar{\rho}$ |
| linear approximation of $\rho$ <br> $\tau$ | auxiliary parameter |
| Subscripts |  |
| app | analytical approximation <br> 0 |
| initial parking orbit <br> f | final |
| num | evaluated through orbital propagator |
| Superscript |  |
|  | derivative w.r.t. $\theta$ |

other existing approximate solutions. Finally, a potential mission application is discussed.

## 2 Spacecraft propelled trajectory approximation

Consider a spacecraft that initially covers a circular Keplerian orbit with a radius $r_{0}$ around a primary body with a gravitational parameter $\mu$. The spacecraft is equipped with a primary propulsion system that provides the radial propulsive acceleration with a small and constant magnitude $a_{R} \ll \mu / r_{0}^{2}$. The thrust vector acts on the plane of the parking orbit for $t \geqslant t_{0} \triangleq 0$; hence, the two-dimensional spacecraft trajectory is described by the variation of the radial distance $r$ with the polar angle $\theta$, which is the angle measured counterclockwise from the initial Sun-spacecraft line to the spacecraft position vector direction (see Fig. 1).
Using the polar angle as an independent variable, and paralleling the procedure detailed in Refs. [32, 33], the spacecraft dynamics can be described by the second-order nonlinear differential equation in Eq. (1):

$$
\begin{equation*}
\rho^{\prime \prime}+\rho-\frac{\tau \epsilon}{(1-\rho)^{2}}=0 \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the prime symbol denotes the derivative taken with respect to $\theta, \tau \in\{-1,1\}$ is the dimensionless parameter that models either an outward $(\tau=1)$ or inward $(\tau=-1)$ propulsive acceleration, and $\epsilon$ is the dimensionless value of $a_{R}$ given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\epsilon \triangleq \frac{a_{R}}{\mu / r_{0}^{2}} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

$\rho$ is a type of dimensionless radial distance defined as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\rho \triangleq 1-\frac{r_{0}}{r} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$



Fig. 1 Sketch of the problem with inward and outward radial thrust.

The differential equation (1) is completed by the initial conditions that model the state of the spacecraft along the circular parking orbit.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\rho(0)=0, \quad \rho^{\prime}(0)=0 \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that Eq. (1) describes the dynamics of an equivalent nonlinear oscillator. The application of this equation in the context of trajectory analysis is discussed in Ref. [32] (or Ref. [33]) for the outward (or inward) thrust case. Although the general analytical solution of Eq. (1) exists, it is not given in terms of the elementary functions $[6,8]$. To deal with this issue, analytical approximations may be obtained using perturbation methods, that is, by modeling the thrust as a perturbation $[34,35]$ of the Keplerian motion, as discussed in Section 2.1.

### 2.1 Homotopy perturbation method

The analysis of the system dynamics described by Eq. (1) is considered with the homotopy perturbation method proposed by He [23]. To this end, the equivalent oscillator dynamics is first decomposed into linear $(\mathcal{L})$ and nonlinear $(\mathcal{N})$ parts:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{L}(\rho) \triangleq \rho^{\prime \prime}+\rho, \quad \mathcal{N}(\rho) \triangleq-\frac{\tau \epsilon}{(1-\rho)^{2}} \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

such that Eq. (1) can be rewritten as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{L}(\rho)+\mathcal{N}(\rho)=0 \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then, analogous to Ref. [23], a homotopy $\mathcal{H}(\rho, k)$ is constructed as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{H}(\rho, k) \triangleq k(\mathcal{L}(\rho)+\mathcal{N}(\rho))+(1-k)(\mathcal{L}(\rho)-\mathcal{L}(\bar{\rho})) \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $k \in[0,1]$ is an embedding dimensionless parameter and $\bar{\rho}$ is a generic linear approximation of the solution of Eq. (1) that satisfies the two initial conditions given by Eq. (4). The motivation behind the introduction of $\mathcal{H}$ becomes clear by writing the auxiliary equation $\mathcal{H}(\rho, k)=$ 0 , which is simplified as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{L}(\rho)-\mathcal{L}(\bar{\rho})+k(\mathcal{L}(\bar{\rho})+\mathcal{N}(\rho))=0 \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Indeed, the roots of Eq. (8), which are functions of $k$, can be changed by simply varying the embedding parameter $k$ within the interval $[0,1]$. In particular, when $k=0$, Eq. (8) is reduced to the linear equation $\mathcal{L}(\rho)-\mathcal{L}(\bar{\rho})=0$. However, if $k=1$, Eq. (8) is simplified to $\mathcal{L}(\rho)+\mathcal{N}(\rho)=0$, which coincides with the actual system dynamics expressed by Eq. (6). In other words, the solution of Eq. (8) varies with $k$ and approaches the solution of the original nonlinear oscillator described by Eq. (6) in the limit as $k \rightarrow 1$.
According to Ref. [23], the state variable $\rho$ in Eq. (8) can be expanded in a power series of the embedding parameter $k$ as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\rho=\rho_{0}+k \rho_{1}+k^{2} \rho_{2}+k^{3} \rho_{3}+k^{4} \rho_{4}+\mathcal{O}\left(k^{5}\right) \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the coefficients $\rho_{i}$ are functions of the polar angle $\theta$ with zero initial conditions for $i \geqslant 1$.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\rho_{i}(0)=0, \quad \rho_{i}^{\prime}(0)=0 \text { for } i \geqslant 1 \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

while $\rho_{0}$ satisfies the initial conditions of $\rho$ in Eq. (4):

$$
\begin{equation*}
\rho_{0}(0)=0, \quad \rho_{0}^{\prime}(0)=0 \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Substituting Eq. (9) into Eq. (8) and equating the zeroth-order terms in $k$ yields

$$
\begin{equation*}
\rho_{0}^{\prime \prime}+\rho_{0}=\bar{\rho}^{\prime \prime}+\bar{\rho} \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

such that $\bar{\rho} \equiv \rho_{0}$. Without the loss of generality [23], a potential straightforward solution of Eq. (12) that satisfies the initial conditions (11) is selected.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\rho_{0}=\bar{\rho} \equiv 0 \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

To obtain differential equations describing the dynamics of higher-order terms in $k$, the nonlinear operator $\mathcal{N}(\rho)$ is approximated with a binomial expansion, assuming that the linear and higher-order terms in $k$ of Eq. (9) have a small magnitude.

$$
\begin{align*}
\mathcal{N}(\rho) & =-\frac{\tau \epsilon}{(1-\rho)^{2}} \\
& =-\frac{\tau \epsilon}{\left(1-k \rho_{1}-k^{2} \rho_{2}-k^{3} \rho_{3}-k^{4} \rho_{4}-\mathcal{O}\left(k^{5}\right)\right)^{2}} \\
& \simeq-\tau \epsilon\left(1+2 k \rho_{1}+2 k^{2} \rho_{2}+2 k^{3} \rho_{3}+2 k^{4} \rho_{4}+\mathcal{O}\left(k^{5}\right)\right) \tag{14}
\end{align*}
$$

in which Eq. (13) has been enforced. Substituting Eqs. (9) and (14) into Eq. (8), the differential equation of the firstorder term in $k$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\rho_{1}^{\prime \prime}+\rho_{1}=\tau \epsilon \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

Integrating Eq. (15) with zero initial conditions, as in Eq. (10), yields

$$
\begin{equation*}
\rho_{1}=\tau \epsilon(1-\cos \theta) \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

Similarly, the dynamical equation of the second-order term in $k$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\rho_{2}^{\prime \prime}+\rho_{2}=2 \tau \epsilon \rho_{1}=2 \epsilon^{2}(1-\cos \theta) \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

where Eq. (16) has been used to obtain the last term. Integrating Eq. (17) with zero initial conditions yields

$$
\begin{equation*}
\rho_{2}=2 \epsilon^{2}(1-\cos \theta)-\epsilon^{2} \theta \sin \theta \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

The same procedure may be applied to the third-order term in $k$, that is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\rho_{3}^{\prime \prime}+\rho_{3}=2 \tau \epsilon \rho_{2}=4 \tau \epsilon^{3}(1-\cos \theta)-2 \tau \epsilon^{3} \theta \sin \theta \tag{19}
\end{equation*}
$$

whose integral is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\rho_{3}=4 \tau \epsilon^{3}(1-\cos \theta)+\frac{1}{2} \tau \epsilon^{3} \theta^{2} \cos \theta-\frac{5}{2} \tau \epsilon^{3} \theta \sin \theta \tag{20}
\end{equation*}
$$

and to the fourth-order term

$$
\begin{equation*}
\rho_{4}^{\prime \prime}+\rho_{4}=2 \tau \epsilon \rho_{3}=8 \epsilon^{4}(1-\cos \theta)+\epsilon^{4} \theta^{2} \cos \theta-5 \epsilon^{4} \theta \sin \theta \tag{21}
\end{equation*}
$$

from which

$$
\begin{align*}
\rho_{4}= & 8 \epsilon^{4}(1-\cos \theta)-\frac{11}{2} \epsilon^{4} \theta \sin \theta \\
& +\frac{3}{2} \epsilon^{4} \theta^{2} \cos \theta+\frac{1}{6} \epsilon^{4} \theta^{3} \sin \theta \tag{22}
\end{align*}
$$

Note that the coefficients $\rho_{i}$ (with $i \geqslant 1$ ) are all proportional to $\epsilon^{i}$ such that the binomial
approximation (14) and corresponding results are valid as long as $\epsilon$ (and the propulsive acceleration magnitude $a_{R}$ ) is sufficiently small (see Eq. (2)). It should be noted that the approximation could, in principle, be extended to higher-order terms; however, the increase in accuracy would be negligible compared with the numerical error introduced by the binomial expansion of Eq. (14). Therefore, the approximation is truncated at the fourth order.
Accordingly, a fourth-order approximation of the function $\rho=\rho(\theta)$ can be obtained from Eq. (9) by enforcing the conditions $\mathcal{O}\left(k^{5}\right)=0$ and $k=1$, that is,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\rho \simeq \rho_{0}+\rho_{1}+\rho_{2}+\rho_{3}+\rho_{4} \tag{23}
\end{equation*}
$$

Bearing in mind Eqs. (13), (16), (18), (20), and (22), Eq. (23) yields

$$
\begin{equation*}
\rho \simeq a_{1} \epsilon+a_{2} \epsilon^{2}+a_{3} \epsilon^{3}+a_{4} \epsilon^{4} \tag{24}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{align*}
& a_{1} \triangleq \tau(1-\cos \theta)  \tag{25}\\
& a_{2} \triangleq 2(1-\cos \theta)-\theta \sin \theta  \tag{26}\\
& a_{3} \triangleq 4 \tau(1-\cos \theta)-\frac{5}{2} \tau \theta \sin \theta+\frac{1}{2} \tau \theta^{2} \cos \theta  \tag{27}\\
& a_{4} \triangleq 8(1-\cos \theta)-\frac{11}{2} \theta \sin \theta+\frac{3}{2} \theta^{2} \cos \theta+\frac{1}{6} \theta^{3} \sin \theta \tag{28}
\end{align*}
$$

Finally, the polar form of the spacecraft propelled trajectory is retrieved from Eq. (3) as Eq. (29):

$$
\begin{equation*}
r(\theta)=\frac{r_{0}}{1-\rho(\theta)} \simeq \frac{r_{0}}{1-a_{1} \epsilon-a_{2} \epsilon^{2}-a_{3} \epsilon^{3}-a_{4} \epsilon^{4}} \tag{29}
\end{equation*}
$$

### 2.2 Model validation

The accuracy of the trajectory approximated by Eqs. (24)-(29) is tested by taking the outputs of an orbital propagator as reference values, in which Eq. (1) was integrated in double precision using a variable order Adams-Bashforth-Moulton solver scheme [36, 37] with absolute and relative errors of $10^{-12}$. The performance of the proposed technique is compared with that of a secondorder perturbation method based on an asymptotic series expansion, the results of which were applied in Ref. [33] to approximate the spacecraft trajectory in the case of inward (radial) propulsive acceleration, but may also be generalized to include the outward case as

$$
\begin{equation*}
r(\theta)=\frac{r_{0}}{1-\tau \epsilon(1-\cos \theta)+\epsilon^{2}(2 \cos \theta-2+\theta \sin \theta)} \tag{30}
\end{equation*}
$$

The latter expression slightly differs from that reported in Ref. [33] where $\tau=-1$. This is because in this work, the polar angle $\theta$ was measured from the primary bodyspacecraft line at time $t_{0}$ (see Fig. 1). Note that the outputs of the orbital propagator were chosen as reference values instead of the results obtained with the analytical method based on elliptic integrals discussed in Ref. [6] because of the reduced computational time required by the orbital propagator. However, some tests have been performed to compare the results of the approximation method with those obtained by the analytical solution. The results are practically identical to those discussed in the remainder of this section.

To compare the performance of the two approximation methods, a dimensionless error is defined as

$$
\begin{equation*}
E \triangleq\left|\frac{r_{\mathrm{app}}-r_{\mathrm{num}}}{r_{\mathrm{num}}}\right| \tag{31}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $r_{\text {app }}$ is the radial distance at a generic polar angle $\theta$ estimated with Eq. (29) or Eq. (30), and $r_{\text {num }}$ is the actual radial coordinate calculated with the (numerical) orbital propagator. The variations in dimensionless errors $E$ obtained with Eqs. (29) and (30) when $\epsilon=1 \%$ are shown in Figs. 2(a) and 2(b) for an outward thrust ( $\tau=1$ ) and inward thrust $(\tau=-1)$, respectively. Although the accuracy of both approximations decreased as the polar angle $\theta$ increased, it is clear from Fig. 2 that the homotopy perturbation method significantly outperformed the asymptotic series technique used in Ref. [33].

The accuracy of the analytical approximation (29)


Fig. 2 Comparison between the accuracy of the asymptotic series method of Ref. [33] (dash-dot line) and the homotopy perturbation approach (continuous line) as functions of $\theta$ when $\epsilon=1 \%$.
decreased as the dimensionless propulsive acceleration magnitude $\epsilon$ increased. This is because the binomial expansion of Eq. (14) is valid as long as $\rho$ is small, that is, as long as $\epsilon \ll 1$ (see Eq. (24)). However, if the variation of the polar angle is sufficiently small, Eq. (29) provides an accurate approximation of the actual radial distance even when $\epsilon$ reaches a few tenths. For example, if $\theta \leqslant 90 \mathrm{deg}$, then the maximum value of $E$ varied with $\epsilon \in(0,0.25]$, as shown in Fig. 3. In the worst case, when $\epsilon=0.25$ and $\tau=1$, Fig. 3(a) shows that Eq. (29) approximates the actual radial distance with a dimensionless error of less than $1 \%$. If $\epsilon<0.05$, then the error decreased to $\max (E)<5 \times 10^{-5}$. Note that the combination of $\epsilon=0.25$ and $\tau=1$ allows the spacecraft to reach the maximum radial distance of approximately $1.4 r_{0}$ when $\theta \in[0,90]$ deg, as shown in Fig. 4(a). Figure 4(b) shows the variation in the minimum $r$ as a function of $\epsilon$ when


Fig. 3 Maximum value of $E$ as a function of $\epsilon$ when $\theta \leqslant$ 90 deg.


Fig. 4 Maximum or minimum value of the radial distance as a function of $\epsilon$ when $\theta \leqslant 90$ deg.
$\tau=-1$. In this case, when $\epsilon=0.25$ and $\tau=-1$, a minimum primary-spacecraft distance slightly smaller than $0.82 r_{0}$ was obtained for the same polar angle value.

The approximate solution reduced the computational time by approximately two orders of magnitude compared with that required by an orbital propagator. However, the solution discussed in Ref. [6], despite being analytical, is only capable of providing the swept angle $\theta$ as a function of $r$ because it requires the solution of an elliptic integral for each pair $\left\{r_{0}, r\right\}$ to obtain the corresponding value of $\theta$. In other words, although the results reported in Ref. [6] are useful for calculating the flight time and swept angle between two positions, the solution discussed in this work can approximate the polar form of the spacecraft propelled trajectory much more quickly.

## 3 Potential mission application

The analytical approximation of Eq. (24) (or of Eq. (29)) can be used to quickly solve a type of targeting problem, the aim of which is to select the propulsive acceleration magnitude required by a radially accelerated spacecraft to reach the target point of given polar coordinates $\left\{r_{\mathrm{f}}, \theta_{\mathrm{f}}\right\}$.

For example, assume that $\theta_{\mathrm{f}}=90 \mathrm{deg}$ and $r_{\mathrm{f}}=1.2 r_{0}$ such that the target dimensionless radial distance is $\rho_{\mathrm{f}}=$ $1-r_{0} / r_{\mathrm{f}} \simeq 0.166$. In this case, considering an outward radial thrust ( $\tau=1$ ) and using Eq. (24), the condition $\rho=\rho_{\mathrm{f}}$ yields the fourth-order polynomial equation:

$$
\begin{align*}
& \left(6.5843 \times 10^{-3}\right) \epsilon^{4}+\left(7.3009 \times 10^{-2}\right) \epsilon^{3} \\
& +0.4292 \epsilon^{2}+\epsilon-0.166=0 \tag{32}
\end{align*}
$$

which provides the propulsive acceleration magnitude of $\epsilon \simeq 0.15595$; this value is consistent with Fig. 4(a). The propelled trajectory obtained with the analytical approximation is shown in Fig. 5. It can be seen that it practically coincides with that estimated by the orbital propagator. Note that similar results can be obtained with the second-order approximation of $\rho$, that is, by assuming $a_{3}=a_{4} \equiv 0$ in Eq. (24). In this case, the simulations showed that the target point was reached with a dimensionless error of $E \simeq 1.63 \times 10^{-3}$, a value consistent with Fig. 3(a).

## 4 Conclusions

This paper discussed the application of the homotopy perturbation method in the trajectory analysis of a spacecraft propelled by radial acceleration of a small


Fig. 5 Propelled trajectory estimated by the analytical approximation for $r_{\mathrm{f}}=1.2 r_{0}$ and $\theta_{\mathrm{f}}=90 \mathrm{deg}$.
and constant magnitude. The spacecraft dynamics is equivalent to that of a nonlinear oscillator, whose approximate solution was derived by defining a suitable homotopy and modeling the thrust as a perturbative term in Keplerian motion. The accuracy of the obtained polar equation was validated by comparison with the output of an orbital propagator.

The simulation results showed small errors in the trajectory approximation, and confirmed that the homotopy perturbation method significantly outperforms the previously proposed approximate solution. In particular, the analytical approximation of the spacecraft trajectory can be used to analyze a simplified targeting scenario without numerical simulations. The computational time required by the proposed approximation is significantly shorter than that of an orbital propagator or existing analytical solutions based on elliptic integrals.

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## Declaration of competing interest

The authors have no competing interests to declare that are relevant to the contents of this article.

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